1: Kolarz J-4 (no date) 1954 RR1 Siberia RR4

demanded, in particular, 'full liquidation' of all shortcomings in Far Eastern agriculture. The Third Five-Year Plan, therefore, aimed at an increase of the agricultural population of the Far East. About 100,000 new collective farmers were to settle down in the Khabarovsk Territory[25] alone.

The outbreak of the war prevented the full implementation of the resettlement plan, but it was, at least, successfully started. Russian peasants went to the Far East mainly from the Provinces of Kursk, Oryol, Voronezh, Ryazan, Stalingrad, Tambov and Penza. Kursk and Oryol seem to have led the migration movement. There was a great deal of propaganda for the resettlement plan and during a certain period almost every single issue of the Moscow newspapers carried a news-item showing how well those farmers had fared who had consented to go to the Far East, and how heartily they had been received there by the old-timers. The big All-Union Agricultural Exhibition which was opened in Moscow on the eve of the Second World War was likewise put into the service of the resettlement campaign. The Far Eastern pavilion of the exhibition illustrated, with the help of statistics and pictures, all the delights of peasant life east of Lake Baikal. In addition, the pavilion served as a convenient place for officially organized meetings at which collective farmers of the Chita Province, and the Khabarovsk and Maritime Territories talked to peasants of European Russia about the advantages of Far Eastern agriculture.[26] These propaganda efforts were not in vain. In fact, the resettlement plan for 1940 was already fulfilled by October of that year,[27] and numerous peasant settlers also went to the Far East in the first half of 1941, continuing to do so almost until the Hitlerite invasion of the Soviet Union.

Peasant colonization in the Far East was resumed after the war. Its precise extent is not known. Official Soviet sources have shrouded it in mystery and apparently consider it a military secret. In the absence of reliable statistics a rough, and not necessarily accurate, estimate about the increase in the population of the Soviet Far East can only be made by a comparison of the numbers of constituencies which were created for the elections of 1937, 1946 and 1950. There was hardly any change between 1937 and 1946. For the Supreme Soviet elections in 1937 the F.E.T. was subdivided into nine constituencies, each of them representing a theoretical population of 300,000. The total population of the Far East in the narrower sense (including Sakhalin) was, thus, 2,700,000. In 1946 the Khabarovsk and Maritime Territories comprised nine constituencies on the Asiatic mainland, whilst a tenth constituency was formed by Sakhalin and the Kurile archipelago. The total population of the Soviet Far East at the beginning of 1946 could, therefore, hardly have exceeded 2,700,000 on the Asiatic continent or 3,000,000, including the Soviet island possessions in the Pacific.

1: Kolarz J-4 (no date) 1954 RR1 Siberia RR1

161 167 A decree of January 9th, 1950, giving a new list of constituencies for the Supreme Soviet elections established four new constituencies in the Far East. The constituency of Khabarovsk was divided into a town and a country constituency, another new constituency was formed around the Okhotsk Sea and two more constituencies were created on Sakhalin. The total population of the Soviet Far East would accordingly have been, in 1950, in the neighbourhood of 4,200,000. It is, however, unlikely that this figure was really reached. The population of each of the three Sakhalin constituencies, in particular, may be considerably below the 300,000 mark.

III. THE SOVIET FAR EASTERN MYSTIQUE

186 208 The Soviet régime worked for the strengthening of the Russian Far East not only by mobilizing manpower for its colonization, but also by building up a Far Eastern 'mystique', a nationalistic ideology which flattered national pride to the utmost degree. After the end of the Second World War the Soviet Government, with the help of a large army of historians, writers and poets, promoted a cult of Russian heroes of the Pacific. The object of the new propaganda campaign was to show that Russians had played an outstanding part in the discovery of the Pacific and that, by their past records, they were entitled to much more influence in decisions concerning Pacific affairs than the 'imperialist powers' were ready to grant them. The campaign was also intended to prove that Czarist Russia had failed to grasp the opportunities offered to her in the North-West Pacific and that the Soviet Union defended energetically those national Russian interests in the Far East which the old régime had neglected.

RUSSIAN COLUMBUSES

186 208 159 To proceed in a strict chronological order the first 'Russian hero of the Pacific' to be mentioned is Semen Dezhnev. Soviet propaganda popularized him particularly in connection with the tercentenary in 1948 of the discovery of the Behring Strait, which separates Asia from America. The Danish explorer, Vitus Behring, after whom the strait is called, may only have rediscovered it one hundred years after Dezhnev had sailed around the 'nose of Asia', the north-eastern tip of Siberia. As late as the nineteenth century, some outstanding Russian scholars still doubted whether Dezhnev could really be credited with this daring feat. Soviet writers, however, are quite positive about Dezhnev's pioneer role. In 1945 the Chief Administration of the Northern Sea Route issued a popular book on Dezhnev, which waived aside all doubts as to Dezhnev's voyage, and described Dezhnev himself as 'a glorious representative of the all-enduring Russian people'.[88]

131 from north to south is almost 1,000 kilometers long, and Kamchatka Peninsula stretches around 1,600 kilometers into the sea from the mainland. These few facts may be enough to give some notion of the vast distances and also the size of the land. The land covers 3,850,000 square kilometers. That is more than fifteen times the size of Great Britain and Northern Ireland or seventeen times the area of France. But this vast area[7] is in European terms practically empty of 161 people; for in one square kilometer taken as the general mean, there 311 are only 1.6 persons--even if estimated population of 6.3 million in 1950 is taken as a basis. That is extraordinarily sparsely settled. However, in order not to give any false notions, it must at the same time be noted that the actual distribution of people is entirely different. In the southern parts there are regions which are much more thickly settled, while in the vast areas away from the transportation lines, especially throughout the north, in areas of many square kilometers only one person is to be found.

The southern regions--Transbaykal, Amur Oblast, Maritime Krai, the greater part of Kamchatka, and also Sakhalin--are completely suitable for accepting people, even though the harsh climate brings certain hardships. But the Russians are more accustomed to bearing such conditions and better suited for overcoming them than any other European people. Thus Transbaykal and the real Far Eastern regions of the Soviet Union offer settlement opportunities with good prospects for the excess population in other /16/ sections. The population has continuously and considerably increased through immigration:

1911	1,723,754
1926	2,304,000
1939	4,039,000
1950	6,300,000

631 The administrative division corresponds approximately with
161 the natural provinces named in the concept "Soviet Far East" although the borders do not coincide exactly. However, in order to be able to use figures and statistics, it is necessary for practical reasons to make the administrative regions equivalent to the provinces. Unfortunately exact data for this purpose are available only for the time of the last census on January 17, 1929. These data give the following figures for the Soviet Far East: /Table on Following page/

7 [i.e. The Soviet Far East — Analyst]

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Administrative Unit	Size	Population
1. Buryat Mongol Autonomous Socialist Soviet Republic	331,400	542,200
2. Chita Oblast	720,000	1,159,500
Transbaykal	1,051,400	1,701,700
3. Khabarovsk Krai	2,572,000	1,430,900
4. Maritime Krai	206,600	907,200
Far Eastern Region	2,778,600	2,338,100
Total for the "Soviet Far East"	3,830,000	4,039,800

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Under the above basic division, the following comparisons can be made. Transbaykal comprises approximately one-twentieth of the total area of the Soviet Union (1939: 21,175,208 square kilometers), but it has only a hundredth of the population. In the Far Eastern region the contrasts are still greater; for in area it has an eighth of the total, but it has only an eightieth of the population in the entire country. Therefore, even in comparison with the Soviet Union there is an extraordinary disproportion between area and population, which indicates that here are special relationships with both geographical and historical bases. These will be discussed in detail later.

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The recent past has brought a change in the administrative division. Two new administrative regions (oblast) were formed, namely Amur Oblast (1948) and Sakhalin Oblast (1947). To the first was attached a part of the old Chita Oblast and a part of Khabarovsk District (Krai). Its size is 360,100 square kilometers. Blagoveshchensk was selected as the capital of the oblast. To Sakhalin /17/ /Map of the Soviet Far East as of 1947:/ /18/ Oblast belongs the entire island (64,750 square kilometers) and the Kurils (15,600 square kilometers); the capital is Yuzhno-Sakhalinsk.

The border separating these from the other parts of the Soviet Union has, however, remained the same. Accordingly, the following administrative units belong to the Soviet Far East at present:

1. Buryat-Mongol ASSR
2. Chita Oblast

memorial. The immigration of additional Koreans, however, began only after the Treaty of Peking, and in this immigration the southern region was their preferred goal. These Koreans always came with their wives and families, and the majority of them were /116/ farmers. They are a valuable part of the population and show especial skill in growing Manchurian plants such as millet, beans, and rice. In addition, they keep cattle as work animals and pigs. They have succeeded in extending the cultivation of rice to the north as far as the Khabarovsk region. Of the approximately 170,000 Koreans (1939) who live in the Soviet Union, around 100,000 reside in the Ussuri region. A part of the remaining Koreans have been resettled in Turkestan where they live as rice planters on the Syr Dar'ya and the Iliysk.

A few thousand Japanese resided in the coastal cities up until World War I, but since then the number has constantly decreased and amounts now to a few hundred at most.

Worthy of mention as a special group are the Jews, who have their own autonomous region west of Khabarovsk on both sides of the right tributaries of the Amur, the Bira and the Bidzhan. Of the entire population, which number 108,400 (1939), approximately half are Jews, who engage in all vocations and who not only come from the Soviet Union but also from other countries.

In addition there are, scattered over the entire region east of Lake Baykal, Poles, Lithuanians, Latvians, Moldavians, Tatar, and others, including Germans; in short there are representatives of all peoples who reside in the Soviet Union. Their total number may be estimated at approximately 20,000 to 30,000.

Distribution, Development, Structure

With the overwhelming vastness of the area and the extraordinarily uneven distribution of the population, figures on the density of population have scarcely any meaning. The main part of the population, comprising about 90 percent, cluster together in a long, extended zone of settlements, which begins at Lake Baykal and stretches along the Amur and Ussuri to Vladivostok. The zone, which is otherwise narrow, attains a greater width in some areas.

In Transbaykal only the river areas of the Selenga and of the Amur are thickly settled, while in between in the area of the Yablonovyy Ridge there is a certain thinning out of the settlements. The valley region of the Selenga, which is occupied primarily by Buryat, attains

361 in some counties a density of 15-20 persons per square kilometer.
161 East of the Yablonovyy Ridge, between Chita and the Argun, there is a second densely populated zone, where the density reaches up to 20 persons per square kilometer in the agricultural area of black earth. The larger northern part of Transbaykal, however, is only very lightly settled, and the wooded wastelands of the plateau area of the Vitim are for all practical purposes not settled at all. Only gold mining has given rise to settlements scattered here and there like dots.

In the Amur area the river itself and the railroad stand out as the guiding lines of the settlement. The narrow area between the two, however, /117/ is not always occupied throughout. In the Zeya-Bureya plain the civilized area then enlarges into an extensive, closed-off plain of settlements; in this plain the landed estates of the former Cossacks lie on the Amur; adjacent to them in a broad band are the cultivated fields of the old settlers, while the new settlers are distributed more on the outer rim. In the Zeya-Bureya plain lies 80 percent of all the cultivated area in the Amur region. In some sections the density of population here, too, reaches 20 persons per square kilometer. East of the Bureya a strip of settlements stretches along the railroad, while a second follows the Amur. In the Khabarovsk area the two meet. From there the thickly-settled zone winds along the Ussuri to the south. After the Iman, a tributary of the Ussuri, the zone stretches out to a width of up to 250 kilometers and so reaches Vladivostok. In this region between Iman and Vladivostok lies approximately 75 percent of the cultivated area of the coastal region.

On the lower Amur there is no extensive area of settlement. Here the population is concentrated in the two cities of Komsomol'sk and Nikolayevsk and in individual villages which lie along the river's course, just as individual village settlements outside of the settled zones described are generally to be found only along the courses of rivers. Even in 1952 there were only 30 kolkhoz in the region of the lower Amur. On the coast of the Ussuri region there are relatively few colonies. The southern part of this coast is somewhat better settled, since the coast is more open and the treasures of the soil existing abundantly there create opportunities for employment for a larger population. The Ol'ga Bay and its hinterland should be mentioned here especially as being heavily settled.

The interior of Sikhote-Alin' like entire distant north of the Far Eastern area as far as the Chukchi Peninsula is extraordinarily thinly settled. Here the density of population sinks to 0.1 per square

kilometer and lower. Here primarily are indigenous peoples, who wander through the vast, immense land as reindeer breeders and hunters. The sources of food in the sea, however, have also lured many people to the coast, on which, at greater or smaller distances from one another, there can be found again and again fishing settlements inhabited by natives, often intermixed with Russians. In recent times fishing kolkhoz have been founded according to plan in all the favorable places, and they have been occupied by Russians. The most important places are at the same time starting points for land routes into the interior; this applies to Ayan, Okhotsk, Magadan, and Gizhiga on the Okhotsk coast. Kamchatka has increased its population greatly in recent years because of the great rise in fishing and hunting of sea animals. In 1950 the total population was approximately 130,000, which was five times as much as it was in 1926. However, the main stream of immigrants came here, too, to the coastal places, especially Petropavlovsk, Ust'-Kamchatsk, and Bol'sheretsk. Despite the important growth in population, the density of population in Kamchatka has scarcely reached 1 person per square kilometer.

/118/ Sakhalin, too, like Kamchatka has had a large immigration. However, here the immigration is explained above all by the development of the petroleum, coal, and fish industries, all of which are located near the coast; accordingly the population is compressed into these areas, while the uneconomic interior is in large measure uninhabited. Only in the valley of the central depression are agricultural settlements encountered. Southern Sakhalin, which was Japanese until 1945, also shows somewhat the same picture in the distribution of its population. The number of inhabitants exceeds that of northern Sakhalin, but here, too, the population is compressed into the coastal area, whereas the interior, as in northern Sakhalin, is occupied for the most part only by small groups of old peoples such as the Olcha, the Oroki, the Gilyak, and the Ainu. In southern Sakhalin there were in 1940 still 1,500 Ainu, who in numbers rank above the other old peoples. The number of the other remnant peoples scarcely reaches 500. The evacuation of the Japanese has given the Soviet Union the task of filling the land with its own people, and, according to all information available, they have succeeded in this. In the process other people have moved in to the former Japanese settlements, but the spatial distribution remains the same. The numerical changes in the population will be discussed later.

The data of the censuses from 1926 to 1939 are available for

•161 The data of the censuses from 1926 to 1939 are available for
167 observing the general development of the population. According to these the number of inhabitants in the area east of Lake Baykal has increased from 2.3 million to 4,039,800 inhabitants, i.e. 75 percent. By comparing this with the average increase in population in the Soviet Union, which amounted to 15.9 percent during this period and which can be considered equivalent to the natural increase in the population, it can be deduced that in the eastern region the growth through immigration reached the considerable height of 59.1 percent. The individual areas, however, participate very differently in this increase. The increase in the Buryat Mongolian ASSR reached only 39 percent, but that in the Chita area was 73 percent, and in the Khabarovsk area it was even 136 percent. Since resettlement in the Soviet Union is directed by the state, a tendency is shown here to give preferred treatment to the area farthest from European Russia. The coastal district, however, appears to be an exception, for its population increased only 42 percent during this period.

Development of the Population

	1926	1939	Increase in percent	Increase through immigration in percent
Buryat Mongol ASSR	390,000	542,200	39	23.1
Chita Region	670,000	1,159,500	73	57.1
Khabarovsk Region	606,000	1,430,900	136	120.1
Coastal District	638,000	907,200	42	26.1
Total	2,304,000	4,039,800	57.5	59.1

162 /119/ During the same period between 1926 and 1939 a basic change in the structure of the population took place because of the extraordinary increase in the urban part. While the urban part of the population in the Far Eastern region amounted to only 24 percent in 1926, by 1939 it had increased almost to 50 percent. Since Soviet statistics make the concept of urban population equivalent to that of non-agrarian population, a general division by vocation can be deduced from these figures. The Buryat Mongol ASSR has remained predominantly agrarian. The urban share is only 30 percent and even lies below the average for the Soviet Union, which is 32.8 percent. In the three other areas this mean is exceeded and amounts to 44 percent in the Chita region, 45 percent in the Khabarovsk region and even

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The Development of the Population 1939-1950

161 The development of the population after 1939 cannot be followed exactly, since no census has been taken since then and also no other official data have been published on this subject. Incidental data on individual places or regions allow a general tendency to be noted, but they are not sufficient to give a clear picture in terms of figures. The best opportunity for this is provided by the election statistics for 1950. Critical evaluation of these statistics enables us to note the total figures for the population, although to be sure the figures calculated are only approximations and contain concealed sources of error which cannot be avoided. Nevertheless the election statistics must be drawn upon, because, with the lack of other information, they offer the sole opportunity to acquire at least a survey of the development of the population.

The total population of the Soviet Far East amounted to 4,039,800 in 1939, according to the census of that year, and to around 6.3 million (including southern Sakhalin and the Kurils) in 1950. The total population, then, had increased by around 2.3 million persons in this time. While the population increased by 75 percent in the 13 years from 1926 to 1939, the increase in the 11 years from 1939 to 1950 was only 35.6 percent. If the mean natural increase in population in the Soviet Union during the period 1926-1939 (15.9 percent for 13 years, 1.22 percent for one year, 13.42 percent for 11 years) is applied to the Far Eastern region without consideration of the effects of the last world war, the resulting figures show that the 35.6 percent general increase in the population consisted of 13.42 percent from natural growth and 22.18 percent from immigration. Under these conditions the general picture of the population development in the Soviet Far East can be concluded to be as follows:

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1939 population	4,039,800
Natural increase 1939-1950	538,140
Increase through immigration	1,722,060
1950 Total	6,300,000

/121/ Even if immigration from 1939 to 1950 did not attain the measure of that of 1926 to 1939, it is nevertheless significant with its general yearly average of 156,500. Since during the six years of the war (1940-1945) all immigration was probably stopped, most of the settlers must have been brought into the Far Eastern region in the remaining five years and especially after the war; this would make the annual average almost 350,000.

The development of the population in the individual regions can also be given only in general figures. Here the difficulty is encountered that the administrative borders were changed in the years after World War II, and accordingly the data can no longer be compared in all cases. Only the Buryat Mongol ASSR and the Coastal District have remained unchanged administratively, while other regions can only be treated together. 161

Population Development According to Regions

	1939	1950	absolute increase	increase in percentage
Buryat Mongol ASSR	542,200	600,000	57,800	10.7 %
Chita Region Khabarovsk District	2,590,400	4,500,000	1,909,600	73.3 %
Coastal District	907,200	1,200,000	292,800	32.3 %
Total	4,039,800	6,300,000	2,260,200	35.6 %

The above chart shows that the main increase in population occurred in the Chita Region and the Khabarovsk District, while the percentage of increase in the other two regions is lower than the general percentage of increase.

There must even have been some emigration from the Buryat Mongol ASSR. If we apply here the above mentioned percentage of natural increase in population (13.42 percent), then this alone should have resulted in an increase of 72,863. This means that around 15,000 persons must have emigrated from the Buryat Mongolian ASSR in the period from 1939 to 1950. The predominantly agrarian character of this republic--in 1939 the rural population amounted to 70 percent of the total--makes it appear completely possible that this occurred because of the progressive mechanization and technicalization of agriculture. [167]

The absolute increase in the population of the Coastal District from 1939 to 1959 was 292,800, of which 121,750 came from natural increase and 171,050 from immigration. From individual reports on significant increases in industrial production and also from the growth of individual cities (Vladivostok increased by around 100,000, Voroshilov by around 70,000, and Artem has passed the 50,000 mark), it can be assumed with certainty that not only the greater part of the immigration but also /122/ the greatest part of the natural population growth has generally been fed to the industrial sector of the economy.

•161 A comparison with 1939 is not possible for the other regions since the administrative borders have been changed. However, a comparison can be made of the population calculated from the 1947 elections in the republics and other data from January 1, 1949, as Shabad has used them in his Geography of the USSR, in order at least to note the spatial direction and the economic employment of the population increase; for safety it must of course be conceded that both comparative sizes here do not represent exact data.

In comparison with other regions, the new Chita Region has had the smallest increase in population (150,000), of which, however, the city of Chita alone has taken a significant percentage (around 50,000) into its industry. Information on an increase in coal mining, in the production of non-ferrous metals, etc. points to an increase in the working force in industry; since also the expansion of the cultivated area in the Chita Region is difficult, it can be assumed with certainty that the largest part of the population increase has gone into industry. The relationships appear to be different in the Amur Oblast formed in 1948; this oblast includes the Zeya-Bureya plain which is important agriculturally. Although the data here are not entirely clear, there are still numerous indications that the relatively large increase in population has benefited the agrarian sector. From this region, too, come most of the success stories in agriculture, and there is by all means the possibility of expanding the cultivated area. On the other hand, there are only a few reports of new industrial establishments. A part of the population increase has probably been drawn into the lignite fields of Raychikhinsk and Kivdinskiy and the new coal district on the Magdagachi; nevertheless, the Amur Oblast retains its predominantly agrarian character. The capital of this region, Blagoveshchensk, provides an indication in this direction, for it has even decreased its population from 61,205 to 58,761 in the period from 1926 to 1939.

A different picture is seen in the Khabarovsk District, whose total increase in population has been relatively large. Alone the growth of the cities (Khabarovsk has increased by 100,000, Komsomolsk by 80,000, Sovetskaya Gavan' has grown to more than 20,000, Magadan has passed the 50,000 mark, etc.) indicates that here the population increase has flowed primarily into industry. Indeed, if the district's total population increase can correctly be assumed to be 250,000 as indicated by the above-mentioned sources, --the figure is too low in my opinion--then there has even been a migration from the country

to the city. There are, to be sure, reports of the expansion of the cultivated area in the Khabarovsk area, /123/ but increased employment of machinery in agriculture is repeatedly reported in announcements, so that it is undoubtedly possible that manpower has been released from the land. Sakhalin Island shows the most significant increase in comparing the estimates for 1947 (Shabad) with the figures obtained on the basis of the 1950 electorate, for Sakhalin has tripled its population from 300,00 /sic/ to 900,000. It is difficult to find an explanation for this, even if the first figure is regarded as too low and the second too high. Before the war the population of the Russian part of Sakhalin was estimated to be 100,000. During the war new petroleum fields were developed, petroleum and coal production was pushed up a great deal, a new harbor, usable the year around, was built in Okha, and many other things were done. The post-war period brought further economic exertions, and accordingly the population in the Russian part must have increased significantly during this period, perhaps to 200,000 or more. The Japanese part was occupied by 412,000 persons in 1940. For economic reasons arising out of the war the Japanese certainly increased the number of people assigned there, and in the process not only created new jobs but also built up the industrial plants. After theevacuation of the largest part of the Japanese population, the Soviets had the task not only of occupying the land but also of getting the economy back into production. For this an exchange of man for man was not possible; instead the Russians had to resort to an oversupply of manpower. But the difference in the economic system must also be pointed out. To the Japanese who managed their economy rationally the question was the employment of all manpower, while with the Soviets--especially with the political tensions of the present--the principal emphasis is on getting production going again, and the employment of people plays only a secondary role. It should further be noted that in the Japanese population the ratio of men and women was 130:100; the population thus had a colonial stamp to it. It is certain--and isolated data confirm this--that the Soviets have settled families in southern Sakhalin, and accordingly there is a different population structure than existed under the Japanese. All these reasons make it seem understandable if the present population of southern Sakhalin exceeds that of the pre-war period. And in this connection mention should also be made, in conclusion, of the political and military side of this question; for a land filled with people is in a military-political sense a much greater asset than an empty one.

To these inhabitants listed in statistics for Transbaykal and the actual Far Eastern regions must be added another population, which can to a certain extent be designated as invisible, for figures on this population appear neither in official pronouncements nor in any other Soviet statements. These are the work camps, which /124/ play a not unimportant role economically because of their mobility and their massing of manpower. Little exact information can be given in detail on their employment. It is known that there are work camps in Transbaykal and also in the lower Amur region and further that most of the workers are assigned to building the Baykal-Amur railroad and also to gold and other mining installations in the area of the upper Kolyma and also in other places. The existence of the work camps makes it difficult to judge or to determine the human work potential in the individual regions. In no case can they be overlooked.

In conclusion a summary is given of the population in the individual regions according to the calculated level of 1950:

1.	Buryat Mongol ASSR	600,000
2.	Chita Region	1,200,000
3.	Amur Region	900,000
4.	Khabarovsk District	1,500,000
5.	Coastal District	1,200,000
6.	Sakhalin Region	900,000
	Total	6,300,000

Estimated Growth of the Largest Cities

	1939	1950
Vladivostok	206,432	300,000
Khabarovsk	199,364	300,000
Komsomol'sk	70,764	150,000
Voroshilov	70,764	150,000
Ulan-Ude	129,417	150,000
Chita	102,555	150,000
Blagoveshchensk	58,761	60,000
Artem	more than	50,000
Magadan	more than	50,000

634 kilometers, and its population numbers /255/ 108,400 (1939), of which
131 approximately half are Jews. This region is drained by the Bira, whose upper valley is also used by the railroad, and by the Bidzhan. Both of these rivers run through broad valley meadows, which are covered with cultivated fields. From the two rivers the region has also received the
361 name of "Birobidzhan," which is often used. The capital of this oblast also bears the name of "Birobidzhan." Lying on the railroad at the point where the railroad leaves the Bira, this city has around 30,000
[294] inhabitants (1939). Worthy of note is a large clothing and knitted goods factory, which is the sole large installation of this type in the entire
135 Far Eastern region. The western part of the oblast, which has already been mentioned in the discussion of the Bureya Highland, is rich in the most varied natural resources, of which the coal deposits of Bira and the iron ore of Kimkan are supposed to become the basis for the establishment of a local heavy industry. The Jews are in all occupations, even
241 in agriculture. In the large section of the west the cultivation of wheat and soybeans predominates; in the smaller eastern section, which is influenced by the nearness of the large city of Khabarovsk, the cultivation
234 of potatoes and vegetables and the breeding of dairy livestock predominate.

361 Khabarovsk, which lies below the mouth of the Ussuri on the right side of the Amur, is the administrative and economic center of the entire Amur region. Its favorable location, in terms of transportation, in the center of a mighty river system and at the end of the Amur and Ussuri Railroad has permitted the city to grow very quickly into a large
•[161] city. Having a population of only 52,045 in 1926, Khabarovsk almost quadrupled its population by 1929 when it had 199,364 inhabitants, and today its population has probably exceeded 300,000. This rapid
[39] growth in population goes back above all to the expansion and construction of industrial plants. In the foreground is machine construction, especially the construction of machinery for agricultural purposes, the processing of metal and of wood, and a food industry which is brought together in large plants. As the center of the Amur shipping, Khabarovsk has
[382] a shipyard in which coastal vessels are also built. A modern cracking
[508] installation has been added to the older oil refinery in order to process the oil from Sakhalin. Khabarovsk is the center of all air traffic in the Far East. Several airports are available, and, in addition, there
[241] are plants for the construction of airplanes and automobiles. In the wide surroundings of the city there has developed an agricultural economy which is typical of areas near cities and in which the cultivation of vegetables and the breeding of dairy livestock predominate.

361 563 lie at a distance from the Amur are as good as uninhabited and in many cases are also unknown. Besides the Goldi and Gilyak, who, being fishing peoples, live in fixed dwellings primarily on the Amur and its tributaries, there are reindeer-breeding Samaghir who traverse the region of the Gorin, and the Negidal of the Amgun region, who are smaller in number. The Olcha are diffused on the right side of [135] the Amur. Findings of gold, which have been made on almost all the left tributaries of the lower course of the Amur, have given some spurs to settlement in very recent times. The rivers on which gold has been found are the Limuri, Pilda, Bichi, and it has also been found in Orel Lake as well as on the lower course of the Amgun.

The most important localities on the lower course of the Amur 361 are Komsomol'sk and Nikolayevsk. Komsomol'sk lies alone in a vast, unoccupied region of the left bank of the Amur. The city arose only after 1926 from the small fishing village of Perskoye; it was the creation of the Communist youth (Komsomol), from which it has re- [161] ceived its name. By 1939 it already numbered 70,000 inhabitants, [396] and today its population is estimated to be more than 150,000. The city has a large river harbor with an important shipyard in which sea- [327] going ships are also built. The largest undertaking is the steel and rolling mill, "Amur Steel," which is supposed to have been expanded to an annual capacity of 500,000 tons of crude iron through the con- [382] struction of three blast furnaces. The already existing oil refinery has been enlarged by the addition of a cracking installation. A second [377] heat power plant is under construction, and a large water power plant was completed some time ago to supply the city with electricity. In addition, the city houses around twenty additional industrial under- takings and promises to become the economic center of the entire 361 area around the lower Amur. Already several years ago the city was 496 connected with the Amur Railroad west of Khabarovsk by a railroad line, which begins in Volochayevka. In order to counteract the dif- ficulties of building a railroad in the damp Amur plain, the railroad was laid on the western edge of the plain and also goes around Lake Bolon' in the west. With this course, new dry areas were opened up to agriculture, and at the same time the rich supplies of wood in the forests /259/ have been brought closer to exploitation. Of greatest significance, however, is the fact that Komsomol'sk is the end of the BAM. By using this railroad the vast areas of the northern Amur country have in Komsomol'sk their nearest exit to the sea. However, the natural unfavorability of the mouth of the Amur has led to a

361 low ridges of the Sikhote-Alin' and enters the Muravyev-Amurskiy Peninsula and finally reaches Vladivostok, the main town and the most important harbor of the Soviet Union on the Pacific.

Vladivostok was founded in 1860. In 1872 the base of the Russian Pacific naval fleet was transferred here from Nikolayevsk on the Amur, and since then Vladivostok has been the center of the military power of the land on the Pacific. Economically, however, the city developed only slowly. In 1882 only 5,000 persons lived in the city. At the same time somewhat regular shipping between Vladivostok and the Black Sea harbors of Russia was taken up. However, the city's rise to become the economic center of the land began only after the construction of the Ussuri and Manchurian Railroad. [504] Through this railroad Vladivostok first became an important Pacific harbor, especially in transit shipping, and in this it is a harbor for all of northern Manchuria. The more recent development of the city into an industrial city has also kept pace with its development into an important harbor. In 1897 the city had a population of 21,000 • [161] persons; in 1914 it was 59,000; in 1926 it was 107,980; and in 1939 it was 206,400. At present it is more than 300,000.

361 133 504 The city lies on the well protected and deep bay of the "Golden Horn" at the southern end of the Muravyev Peninsula opposite the large Russkiy Island, which is richly divided up. The peninsula and the island are separated by the "Eastern Bosporus," which extends from the Amur Bay in the west to the Ussuri Bay toward the east. The harbor is unique and one of the best natural harbors in the world, as the designations already indicate. The "Golden Horn" penetrates from the south into the Murayev Peninsula and bends then almost at a right angle toward the east (see map). /273/ /Sketch Map of Vladivostok and the Southern Coast/ 1/ 274/ The north-south section forms the outer bay and is 3 kilometers long; the west-east section constitutes the inner, harbor bay and is 3.2 kilometers long. The width of the "Golden Horn" is 800 to 1,000 meters; the depth in the interior is 10 meters, and at the entrance of the bay it is 28 meters. Mountains surround the bay and protect it from the cold northwest and west winds. Mountains also rise 50 to 100 meters on the Shkota Peninsula, which separates the outer bay from the Amur Bay. Nevertheless, 361 504 the harbor freezes for three to four months every year, and throughout the winter three ice breakers are in uninterrupted service to keep the harbor and the entrance free of ice. The outer bay and the western part of the inner bay above all belong to the commercial harbor, while

1/ [Cf. cat. 116, p. 317 -- Analyst]

The harbor has in very recent times been expanded and provided with modern loading equipment. Since the Tatar Sound is very shallow, this equipment had to be moved very far out into the sea. To be mentioned in second place is Okha (approximately 25,000 inhabitants), the most important center of the oil region on the northeastern coast. During the last war the city got a sea harbor of its own, which is supposed to be usable throughout the entire year. South of Okha lies Ekhabi, which has often been mentioned recently for its rising oil production. A railroad and an oil pipe lead from Okha to the oil harbor of Moskal'vo, which lies on the eastern side of Baykal Bay in the northern part of the island. Furthermore, in the past few years there have been established along the coast numerous, permanently inhabited fishing bases, which give life to the entire picture along the coastal strip. The largest part of the interior is still untouched and given over even today to the native population and their primitive economy.

In southern Sakhalin (Karafuto), which was formerly Japanese, the natural landscapes continue as they have already been generally described. The western mountain range, which here has heights of up to 1,375 meters, forms the backbone and stretches to the south beyond the 46th latitude, while the eastern mountain range already ends north of the 49th /282/ latitude. The Poronay Valley ends even before that after it has spread out to a width of 30 kilometers.

As in northern Sakhalin, so here, too, the largest part of the land is covered with primeval forests, which consist of the same type of trees as in the north, only here the percentage of deciduous trees is larger and increases especially on the lower slopes and last spurs of the western mountain range. Even though the climatic conditions became somewhat milder with the southern location, tundra-like moss steppes appear here also. Reindeer breeding is still pursued today by the native population, the Orok and the Tungus.

The population of southern Sakhalin was 332,000 in 1936 and 412,000 in 1940; the increase can be traced for the most part to immigration from Japan. Of the old, native peoples scarcely 2,000 existed; of these the Ainu, who number 1,500, constitute the main part. The rest is divided among Gilyak, Orok, and other Tungus tribes.

The economic importance of southern Sakhalin lies in the wood supply of its forests, in its coal deposits, and in the wealth of fish in the waters near the coast. The Japanese have done much for the economic development of the land and also have attained much. Above all they are to be thanked for the opening up of the land through

smaller forests appear, and then mostly with badly gown and crippled trees. 137

Permanent settlements exist only on the coast and those are mostly on the Bering Sea. In them live the Maritime Chukchee who devote themselves to the catching of fish and sea animals, and in some villages there are also Eskimo. The sections of the sea near the coast of the Chukchi Peninsula are especially rich in walruses, which are among the main animals hunted here. There are no larger localities. Except for officials, no Russians remain here permanently. The interior of the peninsula is occupied by Reindeer Chukchee, a powerful people, capable of resistance, who own great herds and who are depicted as excellent in the breeding of reindeer. However, because of their small number the general density of population is very low and reaches only approximately 0.03 per square kilometer, and thus one can traverse great stretches without encountering a man. Very recently exploration has uncovered valuable natural resources in numerous places. Thus, iron ore, copper, mine gold, graphite, molybdenum, and also hard coal have been found. Hard coal outcroppings are known directly on the coast of Mechigmenskaya Bay and also in the environs of Cape Serdtse-Kamen'. Pieces of hard coal of excellent quality were also found by Chukchee in the interior. /292/ The greatest part of the natural resources determined to date lie on the east coast, since this alone has to date undergone a more exact investigation. The findings to date permit one to assume, on the basis of the same geological structure, that there are more deposits, and thus in them perhaps one side of the future development of the Chukchi Peninsula is indicated. 361 563 [225] [161] 135

The Anadyr' region lies south of the Chukchi Peninsula and is bordered on the west by the Anadyr' Plateau and on the south by the Koryak Mountain Range. The central part of this region is taken up by an extensive depression, which is filled with Cretaceous and Tertiary deposits. For the most part this depression is completely level, but it is not unified, for from the north as from the south mountain ranges project into the depression or rise directly from the plain. To the south of the Anadyr', east of its tributary the Mayn are the Alganskye Mountains, which are up to 500 meters high. The course of all these mountain chains and mountain ridges has still been very little explored in detail. 133

The Anadyr' comes down from the plateau of the same name, and in its upper course, where it is up to 170 meters wide, it has the

133 These volcanos, /299/ projecting far beyond the general level, give the landscape of Kamchatka its peculiar picture.

137 The bottoms of the valleys, if they are not too very swampy and covered with moss, have luxuriant meadows, which appear especially in the southern part of the peninsula and which offer excellent [231] grazing ground for livestock. The introduction of the breeding of livestock has, therefore, attained the greatest measure here, too. To be mentioned especially as characteristic of the landscape picture are the high-growing plants in these regions, especially the umbrella-shaped "sweet grass" (Heracleum tanatum or Heracleum dulce), [243] which grows up to 4 1/4 meters high and develops a stalk 12 centimeters thick. The natives use the juice of this rapidly growing plant [273] to sweeten their food; the Russians earlier extracted alcohol from the plant by fermentation.

133 137 Entirely in contrast to the forest and park landscapes of the mountain regions which are rich in vegetation, are the tundra-like moss steppes which stretch in a broad zone along the entire western coast. In the east, on the other hand, these moss steppes form only a narrow rim around the bays. Occasionally these steppes occur also in the valleys of the mountain ranges. These monotonous regions are depressingly dismal and gloomy especially when a veil of fog hangs over them and prevents seeing any distance.

161 The population of Kamchatka according to estimates, scarcely numbered 20,000 in 1914, and the native element was in the majority at that time. But after World War I and up to the present the population has multiplied because of the increased immigration of Russians, and by 1945 the population was given at around 100,000. Thus today the Russians are predominant, constituting approximately 80 percent of the total population. Today their number is estimated to be at least 150,000. The sedentary population is divided among three lines of settlements: the east coast, the west coast, and the Kamchatka Valley.

563 The Koryak and Kamchadal constitute the bulk of the native population. The Koryak occupy the northern half of the peninsula and the adjoining mainland between the Penzhina depression in the west and the coast of the Bering Sea on the east. On Kamchatka itself they live on the west coast as far as the Sopochnaya River in the south and in the region around Litke Bay. In the Kamchatka valley itself they are no longer to be encountered. Their region of residence has been brought together into a national okrug, in which they, as well as the Chukchee, enjoy cultural autonomy. The capital of their

The coasts are rocky and steep and are torn up into adventurous, picturesque forms by the heavy breakers. Thus the coasts project a romantic-dim picture in the fog. Thousands of birds make their home on the rocks. 133

The Commander Islands have become famous for the catching of sea otters (seals) there, but this wealth is almost completely destroyed today. The 600 inhabitants, which consist of a mixture of Aleuts, Russians, Eskimos, Kurils, etc., live almost exclusively from what the sea offers them. On the land itself foxes are hunted. 225 161 224

The Kurils

The island garland of the Kurils came to the Soviet Union after the end of World War II. These islands are not too well known, and therefore somewhat more space is to be devoted to them. 133

The Kurils, along with Hokkaido and Kamchatka, form the most northerly arc of the outer frame of the east Asiatic continent. The Kurils represent a connection between the volcanic massif of Hokkaido Island and the volcanos of Kamchatka. To the island chain belong 36 islands which are larger in terms of area, 20 smaller islands, and many uninhabitable rocks, which often barely project from the sea. According to the local division of the islands, the Kurils can be divided into a 1,200 kilometer long main chain, which begins in the north with Shimushu Island and ends with Kunashiri Island off Hokkaido, and into a second, parallel chain, which, however, is only approximately 100 kilometers long. This shorter chain begins at Hokkaido with Nemuro Island, stops with Shikotan Island, and lies east of the main chain. The entire area of the Kurils is given at 15,600 square kilometers, of which 40 percent is on the four largest islands, namely Etorofu, Paramushiru, Kunashiri, and Uruppu. The most northerly island in the chain, whose name is Araito, lies under 50° 56' N latitude, while the most sourtherly lies under 43° 26' N. The Kurils, therefore, lie approximately at the latitude between Leningrad and Burgas in Bulgaria.

/304/ The understructure of the Kurils rises like a mountain ridge from the floor of the sea, whose highest parts project beyond the surface of the water as islands. The slope of this submarine ridge has various forms. Toward the Sea of Okhotsk it declines relatively steeply to a depth of 3,000 meters (the greatest depth is 3,374 meters). The slope toward the Pacific is bigger, for here the Kuril deep sea

132 December to the end of April shipping must be stopped completely as a consequence of the ice covering in the area of the islands. Even the most southerly island, Shikotan, is cut off from all traffic with the outside world during this period.

137 Because of the great stretch of the islands from north to south, vegetation on the Kurils has developed very differently. Of the 768 types of flora established to date on the Kurils, 257 have the base of their development in Japan, and only 45 have the base of their development in Kamchatka and the adjoining mainland. On the northern island tundra vegetation predominates with widely diffused bush covering of Pinus pumila, willow bushes and birch bushes. Trees can develop only in some few protected places. The central islands have the poorest vegetation: these islands mostly are also small and of lesser height, and thus the rawness of the cool sea current can have the strongest effect on them. The southern islands have a relatively rich vegetation. Here (Uruppu, Etorofu, Kunashiri, Shikotan) there already appear forests which are rich in wood and have trees with long trunks. In these forests firs (Picea jezoensis, Picea glehni) and the Sakhalin spruce (Abies sachalinensis) predominate. Mixed in with these trees are oaks (Quercus grosseserrata, Quercus /308/ dentata), beeches (Carpinus cordata), and other deciduous trees. In higher places and in the vicinity of the coast there appear meadow-like grass areas, which occasionally lend an Alpine note to the landscape picture.

136 Land animals are slight in terms of the number of types. The brown bear and the wolf are in relation to the distribution of the forests. Very numerous are foxes of all types.

The bird world is extraordinarily rich. In this respect the smaller islands above all are distinguished. Migratory birds are rare. They prefer the Salkhalin route for their wanderings. The real wealth of the Kurils are the fish and aquatic mammals, which undoubtedly are poor in terms of the number of types represented but appear in unusual quantities. Among the fish the same types of salmon should be named as were mentioned in the discussion of Kamchatka. Seals stand in first place among the sea mammals, but sea lions and whales also occur. The valuable sea otter has been almost completely exterminated.

• 161 The number of permanent inhabitants of the Kurils was around 13,000 before World War II; in the main they were Japanese. Kuril Ainu--the original inhabitants--numbered only several hundred. The

The greatest part of the population was concentrated on the southern islands, where limited cultivation of rye, wheat, barley and types of vegetables is possible. The principal occupations of the inhabitants--if we can judge from conditions before 1945--were, however, fishing and the hunting of sea mammals. Every summer the population was enlarged by around 10,000 fishermen, who came from Japan and occupied the islands for the catching season. In terms of the value of its yield, fishing was in first place by far, but the catching of walruses also played no insignificant role. The whales, after their summer stay in the Bering Sea, moved along the Kurils in the fall to their winter places in the southern part of the Sea of Okhotsk. In addition, seals and sea lions were also hunted.

After the islands were taken over by the Soviet Union and the greater part of the Japanese had been evacuated, numerous central fishing stations were founded on the islands. Furthermore, a walrus-catching fleet was stationed there, and a walrus-processing works was erected on one island. It is also planned to take up the breeding of fur-bearing animals such as the Japanese had begun.

Because of their volcanic character, the Kurils have numerous hot springs, which for the most part contain minerals. In natural resources the Kurils are poor; only a few of the islands contain rather large sulfur deposits. Exploitation of these deposits for the Soviet economy is being considered.

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however, the NKVD appoints the head of Dalstroy, leaving to him the selection of his assistants. Authority is held and exercised solely by Dalstroy, and everybody who represents this authority is appointed by the head of the organization or his assistants acting as his agents. Every inhabited place has a "commandant" who has authority over the territory under his control. Under Dalstroy rules this commandant has the right to inflict the death penalty on all prisoners.

A somewhat different status is accorded to the remnants of the native tribes which form so-called "national districts." They enjoy various privileges and are given assistance by the Soviet Government; however, it should be noted that these privileges and assistance can be considered as such only in comparison with the position of the prisoners. These local tribes number only a few thousand, and even in their national districts they have no real authority to govern themselves.

4) Population: The population of the region[1] is not accurately known, primarily due to the continual turnover of prisoners who are imported by the hundreds of thousands yearly and who die at almost the same rate. Before the discovery of gold and the creation of Dalstroy, the local population could hardly have exceeded 25,000 to 30,000; according to the census of 1926-1927 the population of the Kolyma region was 7,580. It is very unlikely that the number of aborigines has materially increased under the rule of Dalstroy; in fact, during the first period of the Revolution the native population showed a marked tendency to decrease.

However, the total population of the Kolyma region during the Dalstroy administration has grown fantastically, and the only explanation is the importation of prisoner labor. The exact number of prisoners cannot be determined for obvious reasons; however, according to a report by a Soviet seaman who formerly served on ships running between Vladivostok and Magadan the entire Kolyma region is

> "a single concentration camp. Into it have been thrown huge masses of the repressed. How many of them he cannot say exactly.... In his opinion it may be calculated with considerable accuracy that during the years 1937 to 1940 not less than a million and a half persons were brought on steamers from Vladivostok to Magadan; during each navigation season from April to November four Dalstroy steamers (Felix Dzherzhinskiy, Dalstroy, Soviatsia, and Dzhurma) were in operation, each making from 12 to 15 voyages in the course of the summer and bringing from 6,000 to 9,000 persons on each voyage."[1]

(Note: Radio Magadan in a report on 24 October 1955 stated that "Nagayevo port vessels -[Nagayevo is the port servicing Magadan]- have fulfilled their annual cargo delivery plan 105.8%...the seagoing vessels of the Nagayevo maritime port overfulfilled their 8 month cargo delivery plan but failed to fulfill their 9 month plan. The leading place among seagoing vessels is being held by the steamship 'Felix Dzherzhinskiy.' Good results were also achieved by the steamship 'Dzhurma' which is on its way from Nakhodka to the Kresta Bay carrying vegetables, foodstuffs, manufactured goods, fruits, construction and technical materials, and equipment." The interesting feature of this report is the fact that the steamships "Felix Dzherzhinskiy" and "Dzhurma" which were definitely known to be transporting laborers in 1940 are still plying the same route and very likely are carrying the same "freight" because the hulls of these two ships are known to be constructed to carry prisoners, not freight as stated.)

1 Dallin, David J., Forced Labor in Soviet Russia (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1947), pp. 136-137 [i.e., Kolyma - ANALYST]

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466 According to other sources the number of ships in Dalstroy service is higher than the four ships cited above; it has been positively stated that in 1940-1941 five more steamers (Minsk, Kiev, Igarka, Komsomol, and Uritsky) and the icebreaker, "Sakhalin," were in operation with a total shipping capacity of 35,000 passengers. (Note: Local Soviet Far Eastern radio stations which service areas with shipping administrations have been noted to make reference to the Uritsky, and in the course of the past six months a vessel named "Komsomolsk" may be the ship "Komsomol," as included in the ships carrying slave labor. This possible identification is noted because monitoring of local Soviet Far Eastern radio stations has always been plagued with the difficulty of "making out" names of persons, ships, and the like."

It goes without saying that prisoners were also shipped into Kolyma by the northern route--the run from Archangel east through the Arctic Ocean. This route was attempted because during the 1930's Soviet ships carrying slave laborers on the run from Vladivostok to Magadan passed through the Sea of Japan and the Tatar Strait, both of which were constantly filled with Japanese vessels; for obvious reasons, the Russians were not too eager to have the Fascist Japanese circles learn of this Soviet cargo. However, due to the extreme difficulties of navigation along the northern route, successes were few; instances of ships carrying laborers being caught in the ice with no survivors were not few. In summation, even if the northern route is discounted, the importation of 400,000 to 500,000 laborers annually is not impossible.

•161 Recent estimates of the total population of the area[1] have ranged between 300,000 and 1,000,000; however, inspite of the fantastic death rate among prisoners, millions have been imported as laborers, and there is reason to believe that there is approximately between one and one and a half million people in the area.

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655 5) Development of the Kolyma Area (1927-1931): Commercial gold mining really began in the Kolyma fields in 1927, and at first the entire production was in the hands of free agents who ventured into the area. "In 1929, according to official Soviet statements, gold was being panned in three fields,.... There were altogether 65 prospectors working in the three fields, and a total of 108 men living in the adjoining settlements."[2] According to Soviet law at that time, all gold was to be delivered to the government trust, Soyuz-Zoloto (Union Gold); however, no branch of this trust was closer to the Kolyma gold fields than that office in Okhotsk, which was still more than 1,000 miles from the fields. Furthermore, private gold buyers were willing to pay a higher price for gold than was the government which was attempting to keep gold prices on a level with the rising prices of commodities. This situation had the result that a large "black market" in gold arose, and much of the gold, according to Soviet officials, went into the hands of the Japanese, whose fishing boats were almost omnipresent in the Sea of Okhotsk. These fishing boats brought merchandise to sell in the gold fields, and this can be substantiated by the fact that much of the goods in the Magadan area at that time bore Japanese labels.

The Soviet Government found itself faced with two possible solutions to the problem: either it could permit free-lance gold prospecting as had been the case in California and Alaska, or it could invest a large amount of money into the area in an attempt to build up its own resources for extracting the gold. The first measure was hardly feasible, especially by a government whose basic principle was opposition to free enterprise, and the second possibility was practically impossible because the Soviet Union at that time had no money to invest. It was in this manner that the Soviet Government decided to invest its only and largest asset at that time--people. However, since few volunteers were

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[1] [the Kolyma region—Analyst]

[2] Ibid., p. 113.